1	Loss of knee extensor torque complexity during fatiguing isometric muscle
2	contractions occurs exclusively above the critical torque
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24 Abstract

25

The complexity of knee extensor torque time series decreases during fatiguing isometric 26 27 muscle contractions. We hypothesised that, due to peripheral fatigue, this loss of torque 28 complexity would occur exclusively during contractions above the critical torque (CT). Nine healthy participants performed isometric knee extension exercise (6 s contraction, 29 30 4 s rest) on 6 occasions for 30 min or to task failure, whichever occurred sooner. Four trials were performed above CT (trials S1-S4, S1 being the lowest intensity), and two 31 were performed below CT (at 50% and 90% of CT). Global, central and peripheral 32 33 fatigue were quantified using maximal voluntary contractions (MVCs) with femoral nerve stimulation. The complexity of torque output was determined using approximate 34 35 entropy (ApEn) and the Detrended Fluctuation Analysis α scaling exponent (DFA α). 36 The MVC torque was reduced in trials below CT (by [Mean \pm SEM] 19 \pm 4% in 90%CT), but complexity did not decrease (ApEn for 90%CT: from 0.82 ± 0.03 to 0.75 37 ± 0.06 , 95% paired-samples confidence intervals, 95% CI = -0.23, 0.10; DFA α from 38 1.36 ± 0.01 to 1.32 ± 0.03 , 95% CI –0.12, 0.04). Above CT, substantial reductions in 39 MVC torque occurred (of $49 \pm 8\%$ in S1), and torque complexity was reduced (ApEn 40 for S1: from 0.67 \pm 0.06 to 0.14 \pm 0.01, 95% CI = -0.72, -0.33; DFA α from 1.38 \pm 41 0.03 to 1.58 ± 0.01 , 95% CI 0.12, 0.29). Thus, in these experiments, the fatigue-42 induced loss of torque complexity occurred exclusively during contractions performed 43 44 above the CT. 45 **Keywords:** non-linear dynamics; fractal scaling; exercise; central and peripheral fatigue 46

48 Introduction

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Physiological systems produce outputs that inherently fluctuate when measured over 50 time. These fluctuations in physiological time series, such as the force or torque output 51 52 from a contracting muscle group, can be described in terms of their *magnitude*, using the standard deviation (SD) or the coefficient of variation (CV; 19, 28, 57). 53 Alternatively, such fluctuations can be quantified according to their temporal *structure* 54 or "complexity". In this context, a complex signal has a number of characteristic 55 properties that the SD and/or spectral analysis cannot quantify, namely, temporal 56 irregularity, time irreversibility, and long-range (fractal) correlations (21, 32, 44). No 57 single statistic captures all of these properties. As a result, multiple analyses are 58 required to determine the complexity of a physiological time series (22). Measures of 59 60 complexity include those drawn from information theory, which quantify the regularity of fluctuations in a time series (such as approximate entropy, ApEn; 43, 44), and those 61 drawn from fractal geometry, which quantify the long-range correlations present in a 62 63 signal (such as detrended fluctuation analysis, DFA; 39). The DFA scaling exponent, α , differentiates signals possessing white ($\alpha \sim 0.5$), pink ($\alpha \sim 1.0$), or Brownian ($\alpha \sim 1.5$) 64 noise. Using this analysis, pink noise is considered the most complex because it 65 indicates the presence of self-similar fluctuations across multiple time scales (21). 66 Complexity is thought to be a hallmark of healthy physiological systems (40). In the 67 case of the neuromuscular system, the complexity of force or torque output is thought to 68 69 reflect the ability to adapt motor output rapidly and accurately in response to alterations in demand (31, 59). 70 71

It has been proposed that the aging process and various disease states are characterized
by a loss of physiological complexity (32). This "loss of complexity hypothesis"
initially focused on heart rate dynamics (32), but it has also been shown to apply, *inter*

75 alia, to respiratory frequency (41), stride timing in normal walking (24) and, crucially, muscle force output (52, 56, 59). In the latter case, older adults produce less complex 76 force output during a sustained finger abduction task than young subjects, suggesting 77 that for the same relative force output motor control is diminished in older muscle (59). 78 We have recently extended the loss of complexity hypothesis to acute neuromuscular 79 system changes caused by fatigue in healthy young adults (42). In that study, repeated 80 81 maximal and submaximal isometric contractions of the knee extensors resulted in the 82 development of neuromuscular fatigue of both central and peripheral origin (i.e., fatigue residing in the central nervous system or the muscle, respectively), assessed using 83 maximal voluntary contractions (MVCs) and supramaximal stimulation of the femoral 84 nerve (42; for review see 20). The development of fatigue was accompanied by a loss 85 of torque output complexity, measured by a progressive decrease in ApEn and a 86 progressive increase in the DFA α exponent. The mechanism producing this loss of 87 complexity is unclear, but it is well known that the mechanisms of fatigue are exercise 88 intensity dependent (45). Specifically, the mechanism responsible for peripheral 89 fatigue, as well as its rate of development, changes considerably as contractile intensity 90 is increased above the so-called critical torque (CT; 8). It is likely that the submaximal 91 contractions in our previous study (at 40% MVC) were performed above the CT, since 92 CT has been shown to occur at ~25-35% MVC using the same contraction duty cycle 93 (7, 8). Performing muscle contractions at a range of intensities straddling the CT 94 95 should, therefore, provide crucial insights into the fatigue-induced loss of torque 96 complexity.

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98 The CT, analogous to the critical power frequently measured during dynamic whole-

body exercise such as cycling (35; for reviews, see 30, 34), represents the asymptote of

the hyperbolic relationship between torque output and time to task failure or

101 "exhaustion" (7, 8). Dynamic exercise performed above the critical power is associated

with non-steady state profiles of pulmonary O_2 uptake ($\dot{V}O_2$; 46, 47) and muscle 102 metabolism (29, 60), in contrast to the steady state profiles attainable below the critical 103 power. Similarly, below CT the neuromuscular adjustments during intermittent 104 105 contractions are modest (chiefly increased motor unit recruitment and/or firing frequency [1, 2], reflected indirectly in the amplitude of the electromyogram [EMG]), 106 and the progression of fatigue is much slower than that during contractions performed 107 108 above CT (8). Above CT, there is a progressive loss of MVC torque until task failure 109 occurs, and at task failure the magnitude of peripheral fatigue is similar regardless of the duration of the task (7, 8). As such, the CT represents a critical metabolic (29) and 110 neuromuscular fatigue threshold (8), and consequently metabolite-mediated peripheral 111 fatigue is thought to be the dominant mechanism of torque losses above CT (7, 8). If 112 the fatigue-induced loss of torque complexity (42) is mechanistically coupled to this 113 114 form of peripheral fatigue, then such a loss should only occur during contractions performed above the CT. Furthermore, if the loss of complexity is related to the 115 magnitude of peripheral fatigue development above CT (rather than simply task 116 117 duration), then torque complexity should decrease to reach similar values at task failure, regardless of the duration of exercise producing that failure. 118 119 The purpose of the present study was to investigate the effect of fatigue on the 120 complexity of knee extensor torque output in relation to the CT. To that end, we aimed 121 122 to determine if different temporal profiles of knee extensor torque complexity are evident above and below the CT. The experimental hypothesis tested was that above the 123 CT, central and peripheral fatigue would be evident and torque complexity would be 124 progressively reduced, quantified by a decrease in ApEn and an increase in the DFA α 125 126 exponent, whereas below CT fatigue would develop but torque complexity would not decrease. 127

128

129 Materials and Methods

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131 *Participants*

Nine healthy participants (5 male, 4 female; mean \pm SD: age 25.3 \pm 5.8 years; height 132 1.74 ± 0.10 m; body mass 69.2 ± 10.4 kg) provided written informed consent to 133 participate in the study, which was approved by the ethics committee of the University 134 of Kent, and which adhered to the Declaration of Helsinki. Participants were instructed 135 to arrive at the laboratory rested (having performed no heavy exercise in the preceding 136 24 hours) and not to have consumed any food or caffeinated beverages in the three 137 hours before arrival. Participants attended the laboratory at the same time of day (± 2 138 139 hours) during each visit.

140

141 Experimental design

Participants were required to visit the laboratory on seven occasions over a four to six 142 week period, with a minimum of 48 hours between visits. During their first visit, 143 144 participants were familiarized with all testing equipment and procedures, and the settings for the dynamometer and stimulator were recorded. During visits two to five, 145 participants performed a series of intermittent isometric contractions to task failure 146 ("severe trials"; see below). From these four tests, the CT was calculated, and 147 participants subsequently performed two further tests, during visits six and seven, at 148 50% and 90% of the torque at CT (50%CT and 90%CT respectively; "sub-CT trials"; 149 see below) for 30 minutes or until task failure, whichever occurred first. The severe 150 trials and the sub-CT trials were each presented in a randomized order. In each trial, 151 torque output was sampled continuously to allow the quantification of complexity, 152 153 muscle activity was measured using the *m. vastus lateralis* electromyogram (EMG), and MVCs with supramaximal femoral nerve stimulation performed before and immediately 154

after each trial were used to quantify global, central and peripheral fatigue, as detailed

156 below.

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158 Protocol

159

160 *Electromyography and femoral nerve stimulation*

During all visits on arrival at the laboratory participants had their right leg shaved and 161 cleaned using an alcohol swab over the belly of the vastus lateralis and on the medial 162 aspect of the proximal tibia. For EMG acquisition, two Ag/AgCl electrodes (Nessler 163 Medizintechnik, Innsbruck, Austria) were placed on the belly of the vastus lateralis in 164 line with the muscle fibers, and a single electrode was placed on the medial aspect of 165 the tibia at the level of the tibial tuberosity. Care was taken to ensure that these 166 electrode locations were identical between sessions. For femoral nerve stimulation, the 167 anode (100 mm \times 50 mm; Phoenix Healthcare Products Ltd, Nottingham, UK) was 168 placed on the lower portion of the right gluteus maximus lateral to the ischial tuberosity. 169 170 Participants then sat in the chair of a Cybex isokinetic dynamometer (HUMAC Norm; CSMi, Stoughton, MA, USA), with the lever arm set so that the relative knee angle was 171 held at 90°. The chair's position was recorded and replicated in subsequent trials. The 172 position of the cathode was located using a motor point pen (Compex; DJO Global, 173 Guildford, UK), and another Ag/AgCl electrode was placed on that point. The 174 establishment of the appropriate stimulator current (200 μ s pulse width) was then 175 performed as described by Pethick et al. (42), wherein current was incrementally 176 increased until knee extensor torque and the compound motor unit action potential (M-177 wave) response to single twitches had plateaued and was verified during stimulation 178 179 delivered during a contraction at 50% MVC to ensure a maximal M-wave during was also evident during an isometric contraction. The stimulator current was then increased 180

to 130% of the current producing a maximal M-wave. In all trials, doublet stimulation
(two 200 µs pulses with 10 ms interpulse interval) was used.

183

All visits followed a similar pattern of data acquisition, beginning with the 184 185 instrumentation of the participants and the (re-)establishment of the correct dynamometer seating position and supramaximal stimulation response. Participants then 186 performed a series of brief (3 s) MVCs to establish their maximum torque. These 187 contractions were separated by 60 s rest, and continued until three consecutive peak 188 torques were within 5% of each other. Participants were given a countdown, followed 189 by very strong verbal encouragement to maximize torque. The first MVC was used to 190 establish the fresh maximal EMG signal, against which the subsequent EMG signals 191 were normalized (Data analysis; see below). The second and third MVCs were 192 193 performed with peripheral nerve stimulation. In all instances, where MVCs were performed with stimuli, the stimuli were manually delivered ~ 1.5 s into the contraction 194 to coincide with maximal torque, and 2 s after the contraction to provide a resting 195 196 potentiated doublet. Following the establishment of maximal torque, participants rested for 10 min, and then performed either one of the severe or sub-CT trials (see 197 below). In all of these trials, at task end/failure participants immediately performed an 198 MVC, which was accompanied by peripheral nerve stimulation. 199

200

201 Severe trials (performed above CT)

During visit two (the first of the severe trials), the highest instantaneous pre-test measure of voluntary torque was recorded as the peak MVC torque, and the target torques for the submaximal contractions in visits two to five were calculated from this value. The submaximal contractions were performed using a duty cycle of 0.6, with contractions held for 6 s, followed by 4 s rest. The target for the submaximal

207 contractions in visit two was set at 50% of the peak torque measured in the pre-test

208 MVCs. Participants were instructed to match their instantaneous torque with a target bar superimposed on the display in front of them and were required to continue matching 209 this torque for as much of the 6 s contraction as possible. The test was conducted until 210 211 task failure, the point at which the participant failed to reach the target torque on three 212 consecutive occasions, despite strong verbal encouragement. Participants were not informed of the elapsed time during the test, but were informed of each "missed" 213 214 contraction. After the third missed contraction, participants were instructed to immediately produce an MVC, which was accompanied by peripheral nerve 215 stimulation. 216

217

The duration of the initial severe trial at 50% MVC was used to determine the percentage of MVC used in subsequent trials, which were performed in an identical manner. The objective of these tests was to yield trial durations of between two and fifteen minutes, which have been recommended for the assessment of CT (25). The subsequent severe-intensity trials were performed in a randomized order. Visits two to five were used to determine the CT; individual trials were identified as severe 1 (S1) to severe 4 (S4), with S1 being the lowest and S4 being the highest torque.

225

226 Sub-CT trials

The final two visits were performed at target torques of 50% and 90% of the calculated 227 CT (identified as 50%CT and 90%CT), the order of which was determined by a coin 228 toss. These trials were conducted in the same manner as the severe trials, requiring the 229 participants to perform intermittent contractions (6 s on, 4 s off) at a target torque. In 230 these trials, the contractions continued for 30 min or until task failure, whichever 231 232 occurred sooner. Immediately after completion of the trial or task failure, participants were instructed to perform an MVC, which was accompanied by peripheral nerve 233 stimulation. The two sub-CT trials were performed in a randomized order. 234

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238 Data acquisition and participant interface

- 239 Data acquisition was performed in the same manner as described in Pethick *et al.* (42). Briefly, all peripheral devices were connected via BNC cables to a Biopac MP150 240 241 (Biopac Systems Inc., California, USA) and a CED Micro 1401-3 (Cambridge 242 Electronic Design, Cambridge, UK) interfaced with a personal computer. All signals 243 were sampled at 1 kHz. The data were collected in Spike2 (Version 7; Cambridge Electronic Design, Cambridge, UK). A chart containing the instantaneous torque was 244 projected onto a screen placed ~ 1 m in front of the participant. A scale consisting of a 245 246 thin line (1 mm thick) was superimposed on the torque chart and acted as a target, so 247 that participants were able to match their instantaneous torque output to the target torque during each test. 248 249
- 249

250 Data analysis

- All data were processed and analyzed using code written in MATLAB R2013a (The
 MathWorks, Massachusetts, USA).
- 253

Torque and EMG. The mean and peak torque for each contraction in every test was 254 255 determined. The mean torque was calculated based on the steadiest five seconds of each 256 contraction. The torque impulse (the integral of torque and time) was also calculated for each contraction. The EMG signal from the vastus lateralis was filtered (10-500 Hz) 257 full-wave rectified with a gain of 1000. The average rectified EMG (arEMG) for each 258 259 contraction was then calculated and normalized by expressing the arEMG as a fraction of the arEMG obtained during an MVC from the fresh muscle performed at the 260 beginning of each trial. 261

263	To determine task failure, the mean contraction torque produced in the first minute of
264	the contractions was calculated, and task failure was deemed to have occurred when
265	participants' mean torque output failed to achieve that in the first minute by more than 5
266	N.m for three consecutive contractions, with the first of these contractions being the
267	time at which task failure occurred. To determine the CT, the total torque impulse
268	produced until task failure and the total contraction time during each individual trial
269	were calculated. The torque impulse was then plotted against the contraction time, and
270	the parameters of the torque-duration relationship were estimated using linear regression
271	of the torque impulse vs. contraction time (7, 8):
272	
273	Torque impulse = $W' + CT \cdot t$ [1]
274	
275	where W' represents the curvature constant parameter and t is the time to task failure.
276	
277	Central and peripheral fatigue. Measures of central and peripheral fatigue were
278	calculated based on the stimuli delivered during and after pre-test and task failure
279	MVCs. Global fatigue was assessed using the fall in the MVC torque, peripheral
280	fatigue was evidenced by a fall in the peak potentiated doublet torque, and central
281	fatigue by the decline in voluntary activation (VA; 5):
282	
283	VA = 1- (superimposed doublet/potentiated doublet) x 100 [2]
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285	The time to peak torque and the half-relaxation time were also calculated from each
286	resting potentiated doublet. The time to peak torque was measured as the time from the
287	delivery of the stimulus to the highest torque response, and the half-relaxation time was
288	measured as half the time from the peak torque to the recovery of baseline torque. In

one participant during the CT50% trial, the stimulator failed to deliver a doublet
stimulus and the doublet data from that test were not used in the analysis.

291

292 Variability and complexity. All measures of variability and complexity were calculated 293 using the steadiest five seconds of each contraction, identified as the 5 seconds containing the lowest standard deviation (SD). The amount of variability in the torque 294 295 output of each contraction was measured using the SD, which provides a measure of the 296 absolute amount of variability in a time series and coefficient of variation (CV), which provides a measure of the amount of variability in a time series normalized to the mean 297 of the time series. Force accuracy was quantified by calculating the root mean squared 298 299 error (RMS error) between the target torque and the instantaneous torque during the steadiest 5 seconds of each contraction. 300

301

The temporal structure, or complexity, of torque output was then examined using 302 multiple time domain analyses. To determine the regularity of torque output, we 303 304 calculated ApEn (43), and to estimate the temporal fractal scaling of torque detrended fluctuation analysis (DFA) was used (39). Sample entropy was also calculated (48), but 305 as shown in Pethick et al. (42) this measure did not differ from ApEn, and was not 306 included in the present analysis. As detailed in Pethick et al. (42), ApEn was calculated 307 308 with the template length, m, set at 2 and the tolerance, r, set at 10% of the standard deviation of torque output, and DFA was calculated across time scales (57 boxes 309 310 ranging from 1250 to 4 data points).

311

312 *Statistics*

All data are presented as means \pm SEM. Two-way ANOVAs with repeated measures

314 were used to test for differences between conditions and time points, and for a

condition*time interaction for torque, arEMG, potentiated doublet torque, voluntary

- activation, variability and complexity. The variability and complexity measures were
- analyzed using means from the first minute and the final minute before task end/failure.
- 318 The rates of change in all parameters were analyzed using one-way ANOVAs with
- repeated measures. Main effects were considered significant when P < 0.05. When
- 320 main effects were observed, Bonferroni-adjusted 95% paired-samples confidence
- 321 intervals were then used to determine specific differences.
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- 323

524 Results	324	Results
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326 *Preliminary measures and the CT*

- 327 The peak instantaneous MVC torque recorded during an MVC in visit two was $198.1 \pm$
- 17.2 N.m. This was used to set the target torques for the four tests performed above CT,
- 329 which ranged from 78.7 ± 6.3 to 112.7 ± 9.0 N.m, or 40.8 ± 2.6 to $57.8 \pm 2.5\%$ MVC
- (Table 1). The CT was calculated to be 57.5 ± 4.7 N.m, which was equivalent to $29.7 \pm$
- 1.7% MVC, and the W' was 3637 ± 537 N.m.s. The 95% CI for the estimation of CT
- 332 was 11.8 ± 2.3 N.m. The two trials below CT (50%CT and 90%CT) were performed at
- 333 28.7 ± 2.3 and 51.7 ± 4.2 N.m, or 14.9 ± 0.9 and $26.7 \pm 1.6\%$ MVC, respectively (Table
- 334
- 335

336 *Torque and EMG*

1).

For the trials above the CT, task failure occurred when participants were no longer able 337 to achieve the target torque, despite a maximal effort. All trials above the CT resulted in 338 significant decreases in MVC torque (F = 62.17, P < 0.001), with the mean MVC torque 339 at task failure being not significantly different from (S1-S3) or significantly lower than 340 (S4) the torque produced during the submaximal contractions (Table 1). In contrast, all 341 participants completed 30 minutes of contractions in both trials below the CT. At the 342 end of these trials, the mean MVC torque was still significantly greater than the 343 submaximal torque requirements (paired-samples confidence intervals (CIs): 90%CT, 344 52.6, 168.2 N.m; 50%CT, 92.2, 211.3 N.m), indicating that contractions performed 345 below the CT ended with a substantial reserve in maximal torque. 346 347 348 The arEMG amplitude increased over time in all of the trials above the CT, reaching

- $\sim 61-77\%$ of the pre-test MVC value at task failure (F = 14.33, P = 0.005; Table 1).
- 350 Contractions below the CT resulted in only modest increases in arEMG as the trials

- progressed, with the values at task end not significantly different from those at the start
- 352 (CIs: 90%CT, -4.7, 19.0%; 50%CT, -0.6, 2.9%).
- 353
- 354 *Peripheral and central fatigue*
- 355 All the trials above the CT resulted in significant reductions in potentiated doublet
- torque (F = 34.34, P = 0.001; Table 1), indicating the presence of peripheral fatigue.
- 357 The potentiated doublet torque attained at task failure was not significantly different
- between trials above CT (CIs: S1 vs. S2 –19.2, 20.5 N.m; S1 vs. S3, –10.9, 12.4 N.m;
- 359 S1 vs. S4, -11.9, 17.2 N.m; Table 1). The time to peak tension (F = 2.85, P = 0.15) and
- half-relaxation time (F = 0.34, P = 0.62) were unaffected by contractions above CT.
- Voluntary activation significantly declined during all trials above the CT (F = 192.21, P
- < 0.001; Table 1), indicating the presence of central fatigue. The potentiated doublet
- torque was reduced in both trials below CT, but not to the same extent as trials above
- 364 CT (Table 1). Voluntary activation also significantly decreased in 90%CT (CI: -9.4, -
- 1.7%). There was no change in voluntary activation during contractions at 50%CT (CI:
- **366** *-***5***.***9***,* **3***.***5**%).
- 367

368 *Variability and complexity*

The variability and complexity data are presented in Table 2. All trials above the CT 369 resulted in a significant increase in the amount of variability, as measured by the SD (F 370 = 110.15, P < 0.001) and CV (F = 136.96, P < 0.001). The values attained at task failure 371 for the SD were not significantly different across trials above CT. The trials below the 372 CT resulted in no change in the amount of variability (SD CIs: 90%CT,-0.1, 0.7 N.m; 373 50%CT, -0.1, 0.5 N.m; CV: 90%CT, -0.2, 1.5%; CT50%, -0.1, 2.0%), and the values 374 at task end were significantly lower than those at task failure in the trials above the CT 375 (Table 2). Force accuracy was higher in the CT50% and CT90% trials than in S1 (F =376

23.06, P < 0.001), and accuracy declined only during contractions performed above the CT (F = 101.5, P < 0.001, Table 2).

379

Complexity at the beginning of the trials decreased with increasing torque requirements 380 from 50%CT to S4 (ApEn, F = 35.54, P < 0.001; DFA α , F = 38.97, P < 0.001; Figure 381 1). Representative time series of torque output during contractions below and above CT 382 383 are shown in Figure 2. All trials above the CT resulted in decreases in complexity, as measured by ApEn (F = 192.30, P < 0.001) and DFA α (F = 46.28, P < 0.001; Figure 2; 384 Figure 3). ApEn decreased as the trials progressed, with the values at task failure in S1-385 S4 being similar, despite different starting values (Table 2; Figure 1A). DFA α 386 increased, indicating more Brownian-like noise, as the trials progressed, with no 387 significant differences between trials for the values at task failure. In contrast, the trials 388 below the CT resulted in no significant change in complexity after 30 min of 389 contractions: ApEn CIs, 90%CT, -0.23, 0.10; 50%CT, -0.29, 0.05; DFA α CIs 90%CT, 390 -0.12, 0.04; 50%CT, -0.06, 0.11. At the end of these tasks the values were significantly 391 higher (ApEn) or lower (DFA α) than at task failure above CT (Table 2; Figure 1B; 392 Figure 3). 393

- 394
- 395 *Rates of fatigue development*
- 396 The rates of decrease in MVC torque, potentiated doublet torque and voluntary
- activation all increased with increasing torque requirements from 50%CT to S4 and
- 398 were significantly greater above compared to below the CT (MVC, F = 34.41, P <
- 399 0.001; potentiated doublet, F = 16.68, P = 0.002; voluntary activation, F = 17.71, P =
- 400 0.001; Table 1). The rate of increase in arEMG also increased with increasing torque
- 401 requirements and was significantly greater above compared to below the CT (F = 8.63,
- 402 P = 0.008; Table 1).
- 403

404 The rate of decrease in ApEn (Figure 4A) increased with increasing torque requirements

- 405 from 90%CT to S4 and was significantly greater above compared to below the CT
- 406 (ApEn, F = 34.94, P < 0.001; Table 2). The rate of increase in DFA α (Figure 4B)
- 407 increased with increasing torque requirements from 90%CT to S4 and was significantly
- 408 greater above compared to below the CT (F = 14.52, P = 0.001; Table 2).
- 409

410 Discussion

411

The major novel finding of this investigation was that the complexity of knee extensor 412 torque output was reduced during contractions performed exclusively above the critical 413 torque. Contractions performed above CT were associated with the development of 414 substantial central and peripheral fatigue, accompanied by reduced complexity and 415 increasingly Brownian (DFA $\alpha = 1.50$) fluctuations in torque output. At task failure 416 above CT, torque complexity, voluntary activation and the potentiated doublet torque all 417 fell to reach similar values regardless of the torque requirement of the task. In contrast, 418 contractions below the CT resulted in no change in the complexity of torque output, in 419 spite of the development of peripheral fatigue (at 50% and 90%CT) and central fatigue 420 (at 90%CT). These results provide new evidence that torque complexity is sensitive to 421 the development of neuromuscular fatigue only during high-intensity (>CT) voluntary 422 423 contractions.

424

425 *Effect of fatigue on the magnitude of torque fluctuations: variability vs. complexity*

426 The contractions performed above the CT led to a marked increase in the SD, CV and

427 RMS error of torque fluctuations, whereas contractions below the CT did not (Table 2).

- 428 A fatigue-induced increase in the amplitude of torque fluctuations during isometric
- 429 contractions has been repeatedly observed (10, 18, 26). Whilst a progressive increase in
- the amplitude of torque fluctuations mirrors the loss of torque output complexity, it is

important to appreciate that measures of complexity quantify different properties of the 431 torque signal (31). Specifically, the ApEn statistic quantifies regularity by identifying 432 template matches in a time series, with fewer matches indicating greater complexity, 433 434 and the DFA α exponent identifies noise color and, if present, long-range correlations. The DFA α exponent increasing above unity towards ~1.5 (as seen the present study) 435 also indicates a less complex, Brownian noise-like signal. Crucially, changes in time 436 series complexity can be observed in the absence of changes in the magnitude of 437 fluctuations (i.e., the SD), as reported, for example, in postural tremor in Parkinson's 438 patients (58). Thus, the temporal structure of physiological time series contains 439 information additional to, and distinct from, amplitude-based measures of time series 440 variability (32). 441

442

443 *Neuromuscular fatigue and complexity below and above the critical torque*

The fatigue-induced loss of torque complexity we previously reported was observed 444 during either a series of MVCs or contractions performed at 40% MVC to task failure 445 446 (42). By utilizing a broad range of target torques in the present study (from $\sim 15-60\%$ MVC), we aimed to examine whether the fatigue-induced loss of complexity was 447 dependent on contractile intensity, with specific reference to the CT. Although the 448 critical power (or torque) was originally proposed to represent a power (or torque) 449 below which fatigue would not occur (34), it is now known that fatigue does develop 450 below the CT, but at a disproportionately slower rate than above CT (8). The results of 451 the present study support this, with the decrease in MVC torque occurring more than 452 four times faster for the S1 trial compared to the 90%CT trial, and with the rate of 453 fatigue in all its forms increasing as the torque demands increased above CT (Table 1). 454 It is thought that the dominant mechanism of fatigue above CT is metabolite-induced 455 peripheral fatigue (7, 8), on the basis that progressive phosphorylcreatine (PCr) 456 depletion and phosphate (P_i) and H^+ accumulation only occur above the CT (29, 60). P_i 457

458	accumulation, in particular, has been associated with fatigue in skinned fiber
459	preparations (15, 37), either through a direct effect on crossbridge force (12, 38), or
460	through depressive effects on Ca^{2+} kinetics (15). Recently, it has also been suggested
461	that the effects of P_i and H^+ accumulation are additive (36), resulting in profound
462	peripheral fatigue during high-force contractions. The loss of muscle force-generating
463	capacity in vivo results in additional motor unit recruitment to sustain the demands of
464	the task (1, 2), reflected, albeit indirectly, by an increase in vastus lateralis EMG
465	amplitude (Table 1). Collectively, these metabolic and neuromuscular responses drive
466	the non-steady state increases in muscle and pulmonary $\dot{V}O_2$ that occur above the
467	critical power/torque (46, 49, 61). As a result, neuromuscular fatigue above critical
468	power leads to a progressive decrease in muscular efficiency (23).
469	
470	The present investigation adds a further dimension to the critical power concept,
471	because for the first time we show that the fatigue-induced loss of torque output
472	complexity we previously reported (42) occurs only above the CT. Specifically, above
473	the CT the ApEn statistic decreased (indicating increased signal regularity) and the DFA
474	α exponent increased towards values approximating Brownian noise (~1.5, Table 2,
475	Figures 2 and 3). Both metrics indicate a progressive reduction in the complexity of the
476	torque signal as fatigue develops above, but not below, CT. The factors that link this
477	loss of complexity with CT are not clear, but Seely and Macklem (50) have
478	hypothesized a link between a system's prevailing metabolic rate and its output
479	complexity. Our results support this hypothesis, since it is only above the CP/CT that
480	muscle \dot{VO}_2 rises inexorably as a function of time, and we show here that complexity
481	only falls as a function of time above CT. Thus, it is possible that the loss of
482	complexity observed in the present study is linked to the distinct metabolic,
483	neuromuscular and respiratory perturbations that occur above the critical power/torque.
484	

Despite the lack of change in complexity during contractions below the CT, a modest 485 degree of global, central and peripheral fatigue was nevertheless observed in these 486 conditions (Table 1). Specifically, by the end of the task in both the 50%CT and 90%CT 487 trials, the potentiated doublet torque had declined, and at 90%CT the voluntary 488 489 activation had decreased. This suggests that complexity is dissociated from the development of central and peripheral fatigue below the CT, and that fatigue 490 mechanisms particular to contractions above CT are responsible for the loss of 491 complexity we observed. Below CT, the responses of PCr, P_i and pH to exercise (29) 492 are probably too small to affect the neuromuscular system's submaximal output to any 493 significant degree. Thus, the neuromuscular system's freedom to explore and achieve 494 control solutions (i.e., its "adaptability", reflected by its output complexity; 31, 40, 51, 495 59) is not significantly perturbed and contractions continue with relative ease. These 496 497 results considerably advance our previous findings on both neuromuscular fatigue (8) and torque complexity (42) in that they demonstrate that metrics derived from the field 498 of non-linear dynamics can be used to identify changes in neuromuscular system 499 500 behavior coincident with the CT.

501

502 *Physiological bases for changes in torque complexity above critical torque*

During fatiguing submaximal contractions, the neuromuscular system must maintain the 503 torque output in the face of reduced muscle fiber twitch forces (3) and motoneurone 504 excitability (33), by increasing central drive and thus motor unit recruitment and rate 505 coding (1, 6, 14). As the fatiguing contractions progress, therefore, a greater pool of 506 fibers is engaged in the task, but due to peripheral fatigue each fiber contributes 507 progressively less to the torque output. The net effect of this would likely be a 508 509 smoothing of the torque time series, and thus reduced torque complexity (Figures 2 and 3; 42). Although we observed no change in the time to peak tension or the half-510 relaxation time in response to doublet stimulation of the femoral nerve (Table 1), a 511

slowing of these responses has been reported previously (9, 27) and could, if present, also contribute to a smoothing of the torque time series. That the fatigue-induced loss of complexity appears to occur exclusively above the CT (at least for tasks lasting 30 min or less) is crucial, because it suggests that only metabolite-mediated peripheral fatigue is capable of commencing the chain of events leading to the loss of torque complexity. These events seem to include both peripheral alterations and the central adjustments required to counter them in order to continue exercise.

519

One of the central adjustments that may be key to the fatigue-induced loss of 520 complexity is the common synaptic input to motoneurons and the modulation of motor 521 unit discharge rates (i.e., common drive; 13, 16). A necessary consequence of a 522 523 common synaptic input to all motoneurons is the correlated discharge of action 524 potentials, known as motor unit synchronization (16). It has recently been demonstrated that there is an increase in common synaptic input when the net excitatory input to 525 motoneurons increases, whether this is due to an increase in contraction intensity or to 526 the progression of fatigue and the necessary recruitment of a greater proportion of the 527 motor unit pool (11). The fatiguing contractions performed in Castronovo et al. (20-528 75% MVC; 11) were likely to have been above the "critical force" for the tibialis 529 anterior, since critical force typically occurs at ~15% MVC for sustained contractions 530 (34). The present study demonstrates that both increased contractile intensity and 531 neuromuscular fatigue are also associated with decreased torque output complexity 532 533 (Figure 1, Table 2). Consequently, if common synaptic input explains most of the variance in torque fluctuations (16, 17), then our results imply that fatigue processes 534 may influence the temporal complexity of common synaptic input and thus neural drive 535 536 to the muscle (17). However, the EMG measurements made in the present study (using a single set of bipolar surface electrodes) did not allow us to address this hypothesis. 537 Nevertheless, common synaptic input oscillating at a single dominant frequency has 538

been suggested to cause the increased regularity of loaded postural tremor with aging(55).

541

542 As we have previously observed (8), peripheral fatigue developed more than four times faster above than below CT, and its rate of development accelerated as the torque 543 requirements increased above CT (Figure 4B; Table 1). At task failure, however, the 544 potentiated doublet had declined to similar levels, regardless of its rate of change or the 545 intensity of the contractions themselves (Table 1). This is consistent with previous data 546 demonstrating a consistent level of metabolic disturbance and/or peripheral fatigue at 547 task failure (4, 8, 60). A major novel finding of the present investigation was that at 548 task failure the values of ApEn and DFA α were similar for each of the trials above the 549 CT, regardless of their starting values and their rate of change during the trials (Table 550 551 2). This indicates that task failure is characterized not only by consistent levels of metabolic disturbance and peripheral fatigue, but also by consistently low levels of 552 torque complexity (Figure 1). Whether low complexity torque output plays a direct role 553 554 in precipitating task failure is not presently clear (42). Nevertheless, a high level of physiological complexity is thought to be advantageous because it endows 555 physiological systems with the ability to rapidly adapt to sudden changes in demand 556 (31, 32, 40, 54). A loss of motor output complexity is associated with diminished motor 557 control in aging (53-55, 59). In the present study, the high-frequency fluctuations 558 present at the beginning of the trials above CT were progressively attenuated as task 559 failure approached, giving way to large, low-frequency fluctuations (Figure 2B). These 560 patterns are a signature of the neuromuscular system becoming unable to consistently 561 match the target demand (54). At task failure, torque complexity reached consistently 562 563 low values that may have compromised motor control and therefore limited task performance, in agreement with the purported functional importance of physiological 564 complexity (31, 40, 54, 59). Thus, a role for low torque complexity in the mechanism 565

of task failure is plausible, but further studies are required to directly test this

567 hypothesis.

568 569

570 *Perspectives and Significance*

The loss of torque complexity that occurred during fatiguing contractions above the CT 571 in this study extends the "loss of complexity hypothesis" developed in aging and disease 572 (32) to high-intensity (>CT) contractions in young healthy participants. Exploration of 573 the central and peripheral mechanisms of this loss of torque complexity should, 574 575 therefore, center on muscle contractions performed above the CT. The loss of complexity observed above CT implies that adaptability of the neuromuscular system is 576 progressively compromised, which likely contributes to the processes resulting in task 577 failure. Whether the fatigue-induced loss of complexity occurs when the target torque is 578 varied (during sinusoidal or ramp-and-hold contractions, for example; 1, 59), or when 579 dynamic contractions are performed in tasks such as cycling, is not clear. Establishing 580 the effect of fatigue on neuromuscular output complexity in a range of tasks, and 581 establishing the central and peripheral processes involved are, therefore, important next 582 steps. Given the development of wearable or equipment-mounted devices to measure 583 584 neuromuscular output during exercise, such work could pave the way to real-time assessment of the fatigue process in free running conditions. 585

586

587 **Disclosures:**

588

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592

593 Figure legends

594

595 Figure 1

596 Relationship between knee extensor torque requirement and torque complexity

597 Panel A shows the approximate entropy measured in the first minute and in the last

598 minute of each intermittent contraction trial. Panel B shows the DFA α scaling

exponent measured in the same trials as panel A. Each trial (50%CT, 90%CT, S1-S4) is

highlighted between the two panels. CT occurred at $29.7 \pm 1.7\%$ MVC. Note that

601 complexity is significantly decreased (as shown by reduced ApEn and increased DFA α

exponent) only during contractions above the CT (white triangles). All values are mean

603 ± SEM.

604

605 Figure 2

Responses of knee extensor torque during representative contractions below and above the critical torque

Panel A shows three contractions from the 90%CT trial in a representative participant: 608 one in the first minute (3rd contraction), one at the mid-point (90th contraction), and one 609 at the end of the task (180th contraction). Notice that there is no change in the measures 610 of torque complexity as contractions progress. The amplitude of fluctuations appear 611 greater at the mid-point and at the end of the task by virtue of a slightly larger SD in 612 these contractions (1.4, 1.8, and 1.9 N.m, in first minute, mid-point and task end, 613 respectively). In panel B, data are taken from a test performed at 50% MVC (S3 trial), 614 in which task failure occurred in 3 min 50 s. The first minute is represented by the 2^{nd} 615 contraction of the test, the mid-point by the 12^{th} contraction (2 min) and task failure by 616 the 22^{nd} contraction (immediately preceding task failure). Notice the progressive loss of 617 torque complexity in each contraction (shown by the decreased ApEn and increased 618 DFA α exponent). 619

621	Figure 3
622	Time course of complexity in response to contractions below and above the critical
623	torque
624	Panel A shows approximate entropy (ApEn), Panel B shows the Detrended Fluctuation
625	Analysis α scaling exponent ("DFA α exponent"). In each panel, the white circles
626	represent the 90%CT trial (below CT) and the black circles the S1 trial (the lowest
627	torque performed above CT). Note the progressive decrease in ApEn and the
628	progressive increase in the DFA α exponent during contractions above the CT, with no
629	change during contractions below the CT. All values are mean \pm SEM.
630	
631	Figure 4
632	Rate of change in torque complexity in relation to torque requirements
633	Panels A and B show the rate of change in ApEn and the DFA α exponent, respectively.
634	White circles, trials below CT; black symbols, trials above CT. Note that the rates of
635	change for all variables are different from zero only above CT, and these rates increase
636	as torque requirements are increased above CT. All values are mean \pm SEM.
635 636	change for all variables are different from zero only above CT, and these rates increase as torque requirements are increased above CT. All values are mean + SEM
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Table 1. Voluntary torque, peripheral and central fatigue parameters, and EMG responses to contractions below (50%CT and 90%CT) and above (S1-S4) the critical torque.

Parameter	50%CT	90%CT	S1	S2	S3	S4
Mean test torque, N.m	28.7 ± 2.3	51.7 ± 4.2	78.7 ± 6.3	89.7 ± 6.8	104.0 ± 8.4	112.7 ± 9.0
Mean test torque, ^a % MVC	14.9 ± 0.9	26.7 ± 1.6	40.8 ± 2.6	46.7 ± 3.2	53.9 ± 3.4	57.8 ± 2.5
Time to task end/failure, min	30.0 ± 0.0	30.0 ± 0.0	17.5 ± 1.3	8.1 ± 0.7	4.8 ± 0.5	2.9 ± 0.3
Global fatigue						
Pre-exercise MVC, N.m	226.2 ± 19.7	223.8 ± 21.8	199.9 ± 18.6	198.1 ± 17.2	200.6 ± 15.5	209.6 ± 19.2
Peak MVC at task end/failure, N.m	205.6 ± 18.6†‡	182.2 ± 19.5†‡	101.9 ± 8.2 †	110.7 ± 9.7 †	119.4 ± 10.2†	112.7 ± 8.0 †
Mean MVC at task end/failure, N.m	$180.5 \pm 18.3*$	$162.1 \pm 17.8*$	77.7 ± 5.7	87.4 ± 8.1	101.0 ± 8.5	$95.1 \pm 7.6*$
$\Delta MVC/\Delta t$, N.m.min ⁻¹	-0.7 ± 0.1 ‡	-1.4 ± 0.3 ‡	-6.2 ± 1.3	-12.2 ± 1.8 ‡	-18.5 ± 3.2 ‡	-36.4 ± 5.5 ‡
Peripheral fatigue						
Pre-exercise doublet, N.m	97.2 ± 7.3	98.6 ± 8.5	95.1 ± 7.9	94.4 ± 8.7	92.3 ± 8.5	91.9 ± 7.7
Doublet at task end/failure, N.m	$90.8 \pm 6.9 \ddagger \ddagger$	86.3 ± 7.6†‡	63.5 ± 4.9 †	63.8 ± 8.1 †	62.8 ± 5.0 †	60.9 ± 6.3 †
% Change at task end/failure	6.6 ± 1.3	12.5 ± 2.3	32.2 ± 3.8	32.6 ± 4.9	29.8 ± 5.2	32.7 ± 5.5
Δ doublet/ Δ t, N.m.min ⁻¹	-0.2 ± 0.05 ‡	-0.4 ± 0.1 ‡	-1.8 ± 0.4	-3.9 ± 0.7 ‡	-6.1 ± 1.3 ‡	-11.6 ± 2.5 ‡
Time to peak torque						
Pre-exercise, ms	91.3 ± 1.7	93.4 ± 2.4	95.4 ± 4.8	94.6 ± 4.5	94.9 ± 4.9	93.6 ± 2.8
At task end/failure, ms	92.1 ± 2.2	91.6 ± 2.5	86.8 ± 1.6	90.8 ± 3.2	91.9 ± 4.4	91.9 ± 2.2
One-half relaxation time						
Pre-exercise, ms	201.7 ± 31.7	162.3 ± 21.9	191.5 ± 27.5	179.6 ± 28.5	205.3 ± 26.4	215.6 ± 42.2
At task end/failure, ms	148.1 ± 27.4	135.0 ± 19.9	141.7 ± 19.8	125.9 ± 15.7	162.8 ± 21.3	168.0 ± 24.1
Central fatigue						
Pre-exercise VA, %	92.4 ± 0.5	93.6 ± 0.7	91.3 ± 0.9	91.5 ± 1.0	92.0 ± 1.3	92.4 ± 1.1
VA at task end/failure, %	91.2 ± 1.6 ‡	88.0 ± 1.3†	75.0 ± 3.2†	76.1 ± 1.1†	80.0 ± 1.7 †	76.9 ± 3.7†
% Change at task end/failure	0.7 ± 0.7	6.0 ± 1.1	17.7 ± 3.6	16.7 ± 1.8	13.0 ± 1.5	16.7 ± 3.8
$\Delta VA/\Delta t$, %/min	-0.04 ± 0.04 ‡	-0.2 ± 0.04	-0.9 ± 0.2	$-2.1 \pm 0.3 \ddagger$	-2.7 ± 0.4 ‡	-5.3 ± 1.0 ‡
Surface EMG						
arEMG at task beginning, % MVC	13.8 ± 1.1	22.2 ± 2.3	35.2 ± 3.1	44.9 ± 4.9	53.7 ± 4.9	61.7 ± 4.3
arEMG at task end/failure, % MVC	14.9 ± 1.3	29.4 ± 4.4	62.4 ± 7.1 †	70.1 ± 8.4 †	76.5 ± 8.2 †	77.6 ± 7.0†
ΔarEMG/Δt, % MVC/min	0.04 ± 0.02 ‡	0.2 ± 0.1 ‡	1.6 ± 0.4	3.5 ± 0.9	4.9 ± 1.5	5.4 ± 1.7

Values are means \pm SEM. EMG, electromyogram; 50%CT and 90%CT, 50 and 90% of the critical torque, respectively; MVC, maximal voluntary contraction; Δ , change; t, time; VA, voluntary activation; arEMG, average rectified EMG of the vastus lateralis; ^aMean test torque is expressed as a percentage of the peak torque measured during the MVCs in visit 2. Letters indicate a statistically significant difference compared to the following: *mean test torque, †pre-exercise value/value at task beginning, ‡Severe 1.

Parameter	50%CT	90%CT	S1	S2	S3	S4
SD						
SD at task beginning, N.m	0.9 ± 0.1	1.3 ± 0.1	2.0 ± 0.1	2.4 ± 0.2	2.8 ± 0.3	3.2 ± 0.3
SD at task end/failure, N.m	1.1 ± 0.2 †	1.7 ± 0.2 †	$7.6 \pm 0.4*$	8.4 ± 0.8 *	$8.5 \pm 1.4*$	$7.1 \pm 0.8*$
$\Delta SD/\Delta t$, N.m.min ⁻¹ ^a	0.007 ± 0.003 †	0.01 ± 0.003 †	0.3 ± 0.03	0.8 ± 0.1	1.4 ± 0.4	1.6 ± 0.4
CV						
CV at task beginning, %	3.2 ± 0.2	2.5 ± 0.2	3.0 ± 0.1	3.0 ± 0.2	3.0 ± 0.3	3.0 ± 0.3
CV at task end/failure, %	4.3 ± 0.4 †	3.0 ± 0.2 †	$11.0 \pm 1.0*$	$11.0\pm1.0*$	$9.0 \pm 1.0*$	$7.0 \pm 0.1*$
$\Delta CV/\Delta t$, %.min ⁻¹	$0.03\pm0.01\dagger$	0.02 ± 0.01 †	0.5 ± 0.04	1.0 ± 0.2	2.0 ± 0.4	2.0 ± 0.5
Force accuracy (RMS error)						
RMS error at task beginning, N.m	2.8 ± 0.6	2.5 ± 0.3	2.7 ± 0.24	3.2 ± 0.3	4.4 ± 0.4	3.9 ± 0.4
RMS error at task end/failure, N.m	2.7 ± 0.5 †	3.0 ± 0.5 †	$9.4 \pm 0.5*$	$11.2 \pm 1.2*$	$11.9 \pm 1.7*$	$11.0 \pm 0.9*$
$\Delta RMS \text{ error}/\Delta t$, N.m.min ^{-1 a}	-0.003 ± 0.01 †	0.01 ± 0.01 †	0.4 ± 0.02	0.5 ± 0.1	1.4 ± 0.3	2.6 ± 0.3 †
ApEn						
ApEn at task beginning	0.93 ± 0.07	0.82 ± 0.03	0.67 ± 0.06	0.52 ± 0.05	0.49 ± 0.05	0.49 ± 0.05
ApEn at task end/failure	$0.80\pm0.07 \dagger$	0.75 ± 0.06 †	$0.14 \pm 0.01*$	$0.13 \pm 0.02*$	$0.15 \pm 0.04*$	$0.20 \pm 0.03*$
$\Delta ApEn/\Delta t^{a}$	-0.004 ± 0.002 †	-0.002 ± 0.002 †	-0.03 ± 0.01	-0.05 ± 0.01	-0.07 ± 0.01 †	-0.11 ± 0.01 †
DFA a						
DFA α at task beginning	1.31 ± 0.02	1.36 ± 0.01	1.38 ± 0.03	1.42 ± 0.03	1.43 ± 0.03	1.45 ± 0.03
DFA α at task end/failure	1.34 ± 0.03 †	1.32 ± 0.03 †	$1.58 \pm 0.01*$	$1.59 \pm 0.02*$	$1.59 \pm 0.02*$	$1.57 \pm 0.03*$
$\Delta DFA \alpha / \Delta t^{a}$	$0.001\pm0.001\dagger$	-0.001 ± 0.001 †	0.01 ± 0.002	0.02 ± 0.005	$0.04\pm0.01 \ddagger$	$0.05\pm0.01\dagger$

Table 2. Variability, complexity and fractal scaling responses to contractions below (50%CT and 90%CT) and above (S1-S4) the critical torque.

Values are means \pm SEM. 50%CT and 90%CT, 50 and 90% of the critical torque, respectively; Δ , change; t, time; SD, standard deviation; CV, coefficient of variation; RMS error, root mean squared error vs. the target torque; ApEn, approximate entropy; DFA α , detrended fluctuation analysis. Letters indicate a statistically significant difference compared to the following: *pre-exercise value/value at task beginning, †Severe 1. ^aDue to the duration of some trials, discrimination between conditions at 2 decimal places is not possible. Therefore these data are expressed to 2 decimal places or the first significant figure as required.







